DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 363 972 EA 025 457

AUTHOR Hutton, Susan I.; Gougeon, Thomas D.
TITLE Gender Differences in Leadership Communications.
PUB DATE Oct 93
NOTE 52p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the University Council for Educational Administration (Houston, TX, October 29-31, 1993).
PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Effectiveness; Administrator Role; Communication (Thought Transfer); Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Interprofessional Relationship; *Organizational Communication; *Principals; *Sex Differences; *Teacher Administrator Relationship; *Women Administrators
IDENTIFIERS *Calgary Board of Education AB

ABSTRACT

This paper presents findings of a study that determined relative differences in male and female teachers' perceptions of male and female principals' intentions in the communication process. Data were derived from administration of the Leadership as Social Control (LASC) Model to 397 teachers in the Calgary School District. They reported their perceptions of 20 principals (10 male and 10 female). Three orientations (personal, official, and structural) and three motivations (authority, positive power, and negative power) of leader communication by gender were examined. Findings indicate that male and female teachers perceived female principals as communicating their authentic values and verbal expressions of expectations more than male principals. Principal gender affected teachers' perceptions more than teacher gender. All teachers perceived that female principals paid more attention to their teachers' work, whether positive or negative attention. A link was found to exist among teachers' perception of principal effectiveness, a feeling of closeness to the principal, and the degree of attention that principals give teachers. It is recommended that male principals communicate interest in teachers' lives. Seven tables and two figures are included. (LMI)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
T. Gougeon
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

ED 363 972

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP COMMUNICATION[1]

Susan I. Hutton
Thomas D. Gougeon
University of Calgary

Paper prepared for presentation at Convention '93 of the University Council for Educational Administration, October 1993

DRAFT ONLY: Not to be quoted without authors' permission

EA025457

[1] This paper is an extension of a paper entitled "Leadership Communication: Examination of Gender Differences in the Social Control Communication of Principals as Perceived by Teachers" delivered at the Canadian Association for Studies in Educational Administration Conference, Ottawa, Canada, June 1993.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Introduction

The importance of leadership in education is well documented (Bass, 1981) and is often a primary topic in principal-teacher preparation and professional development programs. A principal is expected "to lead" teachers in accomplishing the mission, vision, goals and objectives of the school community (Mitchell, Ortiz & Mitchell, 1987). Many definitions of leadership have been offered by scholars of leadership. Most contemporary definitions include, as important in this definition, the aspect of communication (Thayer, 1988; Wolcott, 1973; and Gronn, 1983).

While communication in schools has been identified as important to leadership, another aspect, gender, is also critical. In today's schools most principals are male and most teachers are female. Given the differences between males' and females' conceptions of effective communication differ (Shakeshaft, 1968a; Helgesen, 1990; Gilligan, 1982; and Tannen, 1990), a more precise picture of leadership communication patterns by gender would be of use to principals and teachers in today's schools. A clearer understanding of gender communication differences may well enlighten current leadership efforts in our schools and assist practicing administrators in the many daily communication interactions they have with their staff.

Background

Literature in empirical gender communication studies is virtually non-existent. However, observational and survey research data confirm males and females view the world differently. For example, research by Shakeshaft (1986, 1987a,b, 1989), Helgesen (1990), Gilligan (1982), and Tannen (1990) reveal models of different conceptions between males and females of what constitutes effective communication. Shakeshaft and Hanson (1986) and Shakeshaft (1987b) describe society as being androcentric, or male dominated, including a societal knowledge base that is male defined, specifically white male defined. Shakeshaft contends that while males search for absolute clarity, females tend to express themselves with room for further accommodation to others' ideas. Shakeshaft argues that since women have been excluded from the production of knowledge in our society women must consciously create their own knowledge base, define their own morality, and work to have their knowledge base included as different but equal with the presently dominant white male knowledge base.

Studies regarding women and gender have increased in the last decade. Schumck (1987) noted that research done in the 1970's and 1980's provide scholarship specifically about women and make possible a transformation in leadership study. Such studies are categorized into five stages by Schumck. These stages form a typology that characterizes

the research on women and gender as moving from: an androcentric view where women are excluded; to compensatory thinking where scholars note that women are left out and begin to profile successful women; to studies that view women from a deficit model where gender inequity is explained by sex roles and difference; to studies which examined the oppression of women and institutional discriminatory practices and barriers; finally to a more current examination entitled the "new scholarship" wherein scholars are beginning to include both women and men as objects of study with alternative and valid points of view.

Schumck's typology is informative in reviewing studies regarding leadership and women's presence or absence in such study. The study of leadership has moved from Schumck's Stage One, exclusion of women, as depicted by the Getzels-Guba model and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire excluding gender, to Schumck's Stage Five, "new scholarship" which includes an understanding by scholars that women and men do perceive their worlds differently. An example of this progressive investigation of women in leadership studies is reported by Tannen (1990) who contended that while women view the world as inclusionary with relationship as most important, men view the world as exclusionary with independence and status as most important. Similar studies indicate these differences arise from both socialization and institutional barriers. Girls are

socialized through games and by adult behavior to cooperate and take turns, whereas boys are socialized to compete and win (Gilligan, 1982). Ortiz (1982) reported that institutional barriers exist where women are perceived to follow, nurture and teach whereas men are perceived to lead, direct and administer.

Although there is a progressive examination of women in leadership, a majority of existing research in educational administration is predominantly done from an androcentric bias or from a male view. Because such research has been male-centered, the theories and the results of such research based on androcentric theories may well be biased and, therefore, flawed (Owens, 1991). However, while not invalidating research, this androcentric view limits application to the female world/reality Shakeshaft (1986). Since schools are predominantly female workplaces (Lieberman, 1992) while efforts to understand those workplaces have been essentially derived from male-based scholarship, it is important to the study of educational administration to increasingly include female reality.

Therefore, conducting empirical research from a communication perspective might well contribute important new perspectives to leadership literature. Viewing female perceptions as important and distinct from male perceptions might well contribute knowledge to gender leadership

studies.

The Problem and Purposes of the Study

A review of literature in the areas of leadership, communication, leadership as social control, and gender indicates important connections. First, the study of leadership has evolved from simplistic listing of traits to more complex definitions which include the importance of the leader's ability to communicate. These definitions indicate that leadership communication does not occur in a vacuum, but rather occurs in a social environment. This highlights the importance of followers' perceptions of leaders' communication. Second, socialization results in different realities and perceptions of followers, particularly by gender. It is argued that women need empirical validation to challenge and redefine present conceptualizations of leadership. As present conceptualizations of leadership are typically defined by the traditional, androcentric and white male criteria, they must be altered to include female knowledge and reality.

This study sought to determine relative differences in male and female teacher perceptions of male and female principal intention in the communication process. The Leadership as Social Control Model (LASC) developed by Gougeon (1989a, b,c; Gougeon, et al. 1990, 1991a, b) was

utilized to characterize social control communication between public school principals and teachers. The lack of empirical research on leadership as social control communication and cross gender perceptions point to a need for investigation into specific variables of leader communication in school systems. Therefore, the purposes of this study were to:

1. Utilize a model of Leadership as Social Control communication (LASC), to examine teachers' perceptions of principals' use of social control communication;

2. Determine whether differences exist between teachers' perceptions of principals' intentions by principal gender;

3. Determine whether differences exist between teachers' perceptions of principals' intentions by teacher gender and principal gender.

Theoretical Considerations

Thayer (1988), a communication theorist proposed "communication models may provide only for what is, rather than what might be" (p. 310) and further that the ways in which we traditionally and conventionally conceive of communication are inadequate. Thus, Thayer proposed a reconceptualization of the phenomena of leadership and communication. He offered a fresh and new perspective of

leadership defining it as a subset or component of communication in order to achieve a fundamental understanding of the concept of leadership. Thayer concluded that one leads through the process of communication; and cited as support Bennis' definition of leadership "leadership is the capacity to create a common, compelling vision of a desired state of affairs and a capacity to communicate the vision in order to gain support" (Thayer, 1988, p. 242). From this perspective the process of communication then articulates the characteristics, norms and values of the leader. In line with attributional theory, this must be perceived by the followers in a social context as leadership qualities or indeed there is no leader. It is argued that leadership is a process that is follower-dependent, dynamic and inclusive of interactions between the leader and follower in a social content (Spady & Mitchell, 1977a, b).

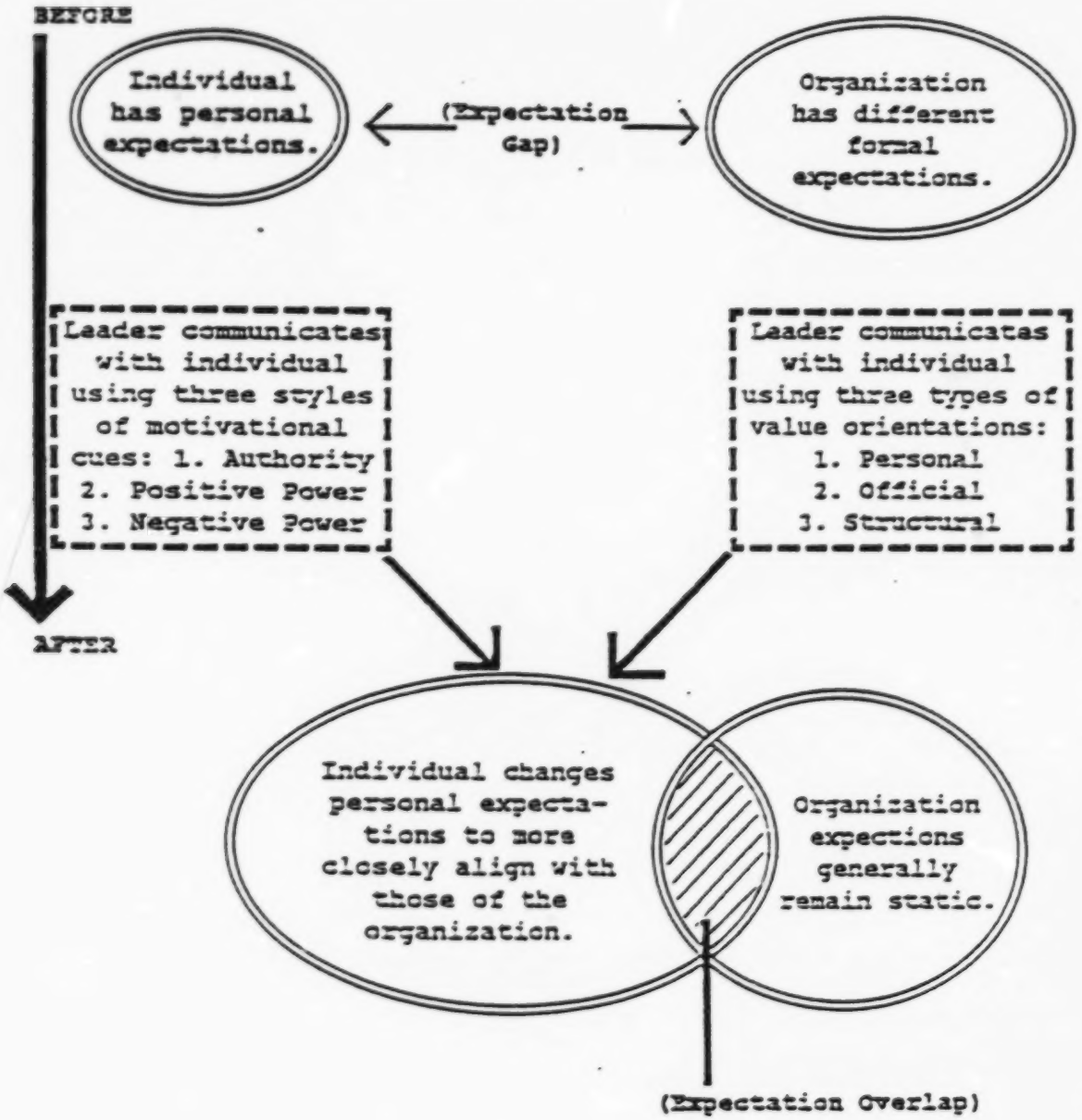
The Leadership as Social Control model (Gougeon, 1989a) was derived from the Social Control Theory of Mitchell and Spady (1977) and Spady and Mitchell (1977a, b). Key to Mitchell and Spady's Social Control Theory are the concepts of tensions and expectations; tensions exist between individuals and the organizations, and within individuals themselves which gives rise to conflict of expectations. Conflicting expectations are resolved through social control which is defined as the ability of one person or group to

influence or control the behavior of others (see Figure 1).

This study was limited to principal-teacher communication that connotes social control. Social control communication occurs whenever a principal directly or indirectly communicates expectations to one or more teachers in the school to ensure that teachers experience minimal conflict between personal expectations and organizational expectations in order to accomplish the work of the school.

Social control communication was categorized in this study into two factors: **Motivation** and **Values Orientation**. Three types of motivation are authority, positive power, and negative power. Teachers would be motivated through authority or the very nature or substance of the principal's character when the principal appeals to teachers' intrinsic values, needs, sentiments, expectations, etc. The intention behind authoritative communication is to gain cooperation or compliance through information. Authority is most often observed when a principal favors being clear, honest and frank in communicating standards to teachers. For example, a principal takes time to talk personally with a teacher and models teaching techniques; directly acknowledges a teacher's contributions verbally or with a written memo in the teacher's file; and works together with the teacher to write goals for professional development.

Figure 1
LEADERSHIP AS SOCIAL CONTROL THEORY


BEFORE
Individual has personal expectations.
(Expectation Gap)
Organization has different formal expectations.
Leader communicates with individual using three styles of motivational cues: 1. Authority 2. Positive Power 3. Negative Power
Leader communicates with individual using three types of value orientations: 1. Personal 2. Official 3. Structural
AFTER
Individual changes personal expectations to more closely align with those of the organization.
Organization expections generally remain static.
(Expectation Overlap)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Power, the second motivational dimension in the model, is defined as influencing by granting or withholding resources available to the principal because of soci-organizational status or economic position. Power communication is based upon extrinsic factors communicated to teachers. Power may be positive or negative, depending upon whether teachers sense they may be rewarded or punished. The intention behind power communication is to gain cooperation or compliance through rewards or punishments. Power communication can control change even in relatively inflexible situations. A principal conveys a message that desirable rewards may result in return for compliance, or failing that, punishments may result. For example, a principal punishes irresponsible teachers by discouraging them from developing innovations; or telling them that their budget is dependent upon job performance; or telling them that they are not doing well in comparison to others; or limiting the amount of time they can spend with colleagues planning instruction. Thus, positive or negative power communications may be invoked by a principal.

The second factor in categorizing social control communication, values orientation, has three types, namely, personal, official and structural. Personal values orientation in communication may be perceived by teachers as face-to-face or direct communication from the principal as him/herself. When principals communicate personally they

may be perceived by teachers to convey subjective interpretations of school expectations. A personal referent then, may be perceived when a principal communicates personally-held standards, that is, the principal communicates personally-held values, attitudes, sentiments, beliefs, and uses symbols which hold special meaning to him/her. If the source of the values is the person the referent may be perceived as personal and may imply a psychological message. For example, a principal may acknowledge a teacher's hard work and effort in organizing a complicated assembly by saying from his/her own value base, "I believe in hard work and effort to get quality results and you have those characteristics." However, if the source is perceived to be the "person as principal" then the referent may be perceived as official.

Official values orientation in communication may be perceived by teachers as face-to-face or direct communication from the principal in his/her role. Principals may be perceived by teachers as using an official orientation by conveying expectations of various subgroups of society. Official communication in the model may be perceived by teachers when a principal communicates officially-held standards, values, attitudes, sentiments, and beliefs which are reflective of the school or the office the principal holds. Principals who communicate from the official perspective may be perceived to imply a moral

message in their communication; that is a message that reflects the school's standards or norms and standards of the community or society at large. For example, a teacher organizes a holiday party and the principal responds by saying "Great job! You had many excellent activities to keep students productively involved, and the evening time you chose was not too late for students to be out. That's the way our parents like to see things done."

Structural values orientation in communication may be perceived by followers as indirect communication as principals develop and use structures inherent within the school. Principals may be perceived by teachers to convey school expectations by creating and maintaining organizational programs, rules, regulations, and traditions. Structural communication in the model may be perceived to reflect either personal or official values. What makes it structural, and not personal or official is, it appears to teachers in a non-verbal form. For example, a principal institutes a silent reading program in the school and conveys a written acknowledgement or reprimand in teachers' files in response to each teacher's level of participation. Values are communicated through social or organizational structures within the school. Additional examples of structural elements include school routines, ceremonies, expectations and policies.

Arising out of these concepts is a model represented by a three by three matrix when motivation and values orientation are considered as independent variables (See Figure 2)

Methodology

To select the study sample, principals of Areas I and III of the Calgary Board of Education, an urban school district of 94,000 students, were given a short, fifteen minute presentation briefly describing the objectives, methodology and theoretical basis of the study. Care was taken to describe the study in general terms only. Principals of approximately 100 schools were in attendance. Twenty (20) principals volunteered to involve a total of 397 teachers in the study and committed themselves to complete the 90 item social control communication (LASC) survey in a 45 minute faculty meeting. Of the 20 principals ten were male and ten were female.

Teachers surveyed were asked how frequently they experienced different feelings or emotions when their principal communicated with them. They were asked, for example, how frequently they felt acknowledged, isolated, or valued when talking with their principal. The LASC survey is composed of ten items to represent each of the nine scales of the three by three LASC matrix communication model. A Likert-type five point frequency response scale

Figure 2

COMMUNICATION
Model

MOTIVATIONS	ORIENTATIONS: PERSONAL	OFFICIAL	STRUCTURAL
AUTHORITY (Intrinsic)	SCALE 1	SCALE 2	SCALE 3
POSITIVE POWER (Rewards)	SCALE 4	SCALE 6	SCALE 8
NEGATIVE POWER (Punishments)	SCALE 5	SCALE 7	SCALE 9

Leadership as Social Control Model
(LASC)

was used for each item. A detailed report of each school's ordinal data was given to the principal, and later the researcher met with each principal and other colleagues to discuss the data.

Statistical procedures utilized for the five-point Likert-type scales in the instrument included all ninety items of the survey tested for statistical significance. Data gathered from the surveys are ordinal in nature; i.e. the Likert-type scales may be viewed as ordinal in that they are measures of subjective emotionality by participants. Each respondent may have unique attitudinal assessments of the points on the scale. Thus, interval-appearing data may be accurately described as ordinal in nature as there may be variance in response to the categories representing different points of the scale and therefore, assumptions of interval data may not be met. Seigal (1991) supports the validity of using nonparametric statistical tests for interval-appearing data. He contends, "Because the power of any nonparametric test may be increased by simply increasing the size of the sample . . . and yields the same power to reject a hypothesis as parametric tests . . . and because behavioral scientists rarely achieve the sort of measurement which permits the meaningful use of parametric tests, nonparametric statistical tests deserve an increasingly prominent role in research in the behavioral sciences" (p.31). The nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA provided

tests of significance of differences in perceptions between teachers and principals by gender. As no suitable nonparametric statistical test is available, the parametric procedure, MANOVA, provided tests of significance of differences in perceptions between teacher by gender and principals by gender.

Findings

As a result of the high number of multivariate and univariate statistical tests conducted, caution is noted that many significant findings could occur simply by random chance and thereby weaken the confidence in the conclusions and implications noted in the report. Findings below and approaching .05 significance were considered to be significant.

Study Purposes:

1. Determine whether differences exist between teachers' perceptions of principals' intention by principal gender.

The findings as indicated in Table 1 revealed all teachers' perceptions of male and female principals' communication to be significantly different in only one of the six dimensions, personal. Comparison of Kruskal-Wallis mean ranks for personal orientation indicates all teachers perceived female principals use of personal orientation to be greater than male principals.

TABLE 1

Mean Ranks, Six Dimensions by Sex of Principal, Kruskal-Wallis one Way ANOVA

DIMENSION	MEAN RANK Male[a]	MEAN RANK Female[b]	CHI SQUARE	PROBABILITY[c]
PERSONAL	184.52	211.53	5.5077	0.0189
OFFICIAL	198.88	200.08	0.0108	0.9173
STRUCTURAL	189.07	208.30	2.7858	0.0951
AUTHORITY	188.35	208.98	3.2059	0.0734
POSITIVE POWER	195.48	203.24	0.4521	0.5013
NEGATIVE POWER	195.89	200.93	0.1920	0.6612

Notes. a n = 192 for teacher group reporting on male principals.

b n = 205 for teacher group reporting on female principals.

c Values represent .05 level of significance or values significant at $p<.05$.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

This would be expected from a review of literature on gender differences which indicates that females tend to be oriented from a personal perspective more than males. Females use a more collegial style (Charters & Jovick, 1981) than males and image organizations from a web of inclusion versus a male hierarchical view of organizations (Helgesen, 1990). The web imagery emphasizes interrelationships and principles of inclusion and connection. Women's sense of self-worth is bound in the ability to personally establish and maintain personal relationships. Thus, consistent with findings from gender studies, reported in the literature, female principals in this study were not surprisingly perceived by all teachers to use personal communication more than male principals.

2. Determine whether differences exist between teachers' perceptions of principals' intentions by teacher gender and principal gender.

Analysis by Dimension

The findings as indicated in Table 2 revealed no overall interactive effect among the six dimensions, namely the three orientations (personal, official and structural) and the three motivations (authority, positive power and negative power) and sex of principal and sex of teacher. In addition no interactive effect among the six dimensions and sex of teacher was revealed as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 2

Six Dimensions by Sex of Principal by Sex of Teacher[a]
Multiple Analysis of Variance

DIMENSION	$F_{observed}$	PROBABILITY[b]
PERSONAL	0.922	0.337
OFFICIAL	0.391	0.532
STRUCTURAL	0.052	0.819
AUTHORITY	0.031	0.860
POSITIVE POWER	0.291	0.589
NEGATIVE POWER	0.631	0.427

Notes. Degrees of Freedom = (1,363).

a n = 191 for teacher group reporting on male principals.

n = 205 for teacher group reporting on female principals.

b Values represent .05 level of significance or significant at $p<.05$.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

However, MANOVA multivariate findings, as shown in Table 4 revealed a similar finding to the univariate Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA. That is, an interactive effect with the six dimensions by sex of principal was found to be significant in one orientation dimension, personal. Comparison of means reveal female principals were perceived by all teachers to use the motivation dimensions of authority, positive power and negative power from a personal orientation more than male principals.

Analysis by Scale

Since each dimension is an aggregation of three individual scales, the next step of analysis included examination of the nine individual scales in relationship to sex of principal and sex of teacher. Use of MANOVA revealed overall no interactive effect among the nine scales and sex of principal by sex of teacher and further, overall no interactive effect between the nine scales and sex of teacher. However, an interactive effect was found between the nine scales and sex of principal

To discover which scales might have contributed most to this significant interactive effect, between scales by sex of principal, subsequent univariate analysis of each scale (see Table 5) was applied. This procedure revealed that scales 3 and 5 may contribute most to the overall finding as

TABLE 3

Six Dimensions by Sex of Teacher[a]
Multiple Analysis of Variance

DIMENSION	$F_{observed}$	PROBABILITY[b]
PERSONAL	0.878	0.349
OFFICIAL	0.066	0.797
STRUCTURAL	0.302	0.583
AUTHORITY	0.126	0.722
POSITIVE POWER	0.015	0.902
NEGATIVE POWER	2.438	0.119

Notes. Degrees of Freedom = (1,365).

a n = 190 for teacher group reporting on male principals.

n = 206 for teacher group reporting on female principals.

b Values represent .05 level of significance or significant at $p<.05$.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

well as scale 4 which approached .05 level of significance, thus warranting further analysis.

Comparing means in Scale 3, Authentic Structure, (see Table 5) revealed that female principals were perceived by teachers to use authentic structural communication more than male principals.

Comparing means in Scale 4, Personal Positive Power, (see Table 5) revealed that female principals were perceived by teachers to use personal positive power communication more than male principals.

Comparing means in Scale 5, Personal Negative Power, (see Table 5) revealed that female principals were perceived by teachers to use personal negative power communication more than male principals.

These findings are not entirely consistent with a review of literature which would predict from attributional theory that perception of the follower (Pfeffer, 1977), or teacher, would be most important to the significant interactive effect. The follower's perception and belief about leadership would be expected from this view of leadership to contribute most to the finding. However, sex of principal contributed most to the effect. An explanation may be that the definition of leadership is still primarily

TABLE 4

Six Dimensions by Sex of Principal
Multiple Analysis of Variance

DIMENSION	SEX OF PRINCIPAL				F_{obs}	PROB[c]	DF
	Male[a]		Female[b]				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
PERSONAL	8.52	1.6	8.91	1.7	5.20	0.023	1,394
OFFICIAL	8.54	1.5	8.53	1.6	0.16	0.689	1,396
STRUCTURAL	7.69	1.5	7.94	1.5	1.50	0.222	1,395
AUTHORITY	10.07	2.3	10.44	2.3	1.66	0.198	1,395
POSITIVE POWER	9.78	2.4	9.91	2.5	0.65	0.420	1,396
NEGATIVE POWER	4.92	1.4	5.03	1.5	0.70	0.403	1,394

Notes. [a] n = 192 for teacher group reporting on male principals.

[b] n = 205 for teacher group reporting on female principals.

[c] Values represent .05 level of significance or values significant at $p<.05$.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

defined by white male criteria and both male and female followers do not differentiate their own realities of what constitutes leadership (Schein, 1973, 1975, & Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989).

In addition, these findings may be a result of the state of females in educational administration as noted by Schumck (1987) in her typology, about women in educational administration. Schumck contends we are only now entering the final stage of her typology that of the "new scholarship" where both male and female realities are considered to be valid, and both women and men are included as objects of study which provides alternative points of view. We have experienced many decades of the successful manager being defined as having traits that are of men, where successful mid-managers have been judged by both males and females to be those that exhibit typical male characteristics (Brenner, Tomkeiviacz & Schein, 1989, & Schein, 1973, 1975). Teachers' state of awareness of what leadership might be may be evolved to the point that enables teachers to discriminate leadership characteristics other than those that are male and supported by androcentric society or the white male knowledge base. This may account for the sex of principal remaining predominant rather than the sex of the teacher in the perception of leadership. It may be that the view of what a leader ought to be, that of stereotypical male characteristics, is still seen as the

prime determinant rather than a more eclectic conceptualization. A more eclectic conceptualization, characterized by Schumck's "new scholarship" state, based upon different but valid realities, where the perception and sex of the follower is not so constrained by white male definition.

Analysis by Questionnaire Items

To discover which questionnaire items may contribute most to this significant interactive effect between scales, a MANOVA analysis was applied to the data to examine questionnaire items grouped by the nine scales with sex of principal by sex of teacher. No significant findings were noted among any of the scales.

However, similar to the results of the univariate analysis of the nine scales by sex of principal, an effect was found in Scale 3 and Scale 4 by sex of principal (see Table 6). Although no overall significant effect was found in Scale 5 by sex of principal (see Table 6), it is included as earlier analysis (see Table 5.0) indicated some effect. In addition, an effect was found in Scale 5 by sex of teacher (see Table 7.0).

Questionnaire items in Scales 3, 4, and 5 were further examined as earlier MANOVA and ANOVA analysis indicated these scales appear to contribute most to the overall

TABLE 5

Nine Scales by Sex of Principal
Multiple Analysis of Variance

SCALE	SEX OF PRINCIPAL				F_{obs}	PROB[c]	DF
	Male[a]		Female[b]				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
PERSONAL AUTHORITY	3.35	0.8	3.47	0.8	1.31	0.254	1,9
OFFICIAL AUTHORITY	3.59	0.8	3.61	0.8	0.01	0.903	1,9
STRUCTURAL AUTHORITY	3.12	0.8	3.36	0.8	5.80	0.017	1,9
PERSONAL POSITIVE POWER	3.44	0.8	3.55	0.9	2.94	0.087	1,9
PERSONAL NEGATIVE POWER	1.74	0.5	1.88	0.6	6.16	0.014	1,9
OFFICIAL POSITIVE POWER	3.22	0.8	3.19	0.9	0.09	0.763	1,9
OFFICIAL NEGATIVE POWER	1.73	0.5	1.73	0.5	0.23	0.634	1,9
STRUCTURAL POSITIVE POWER	3.12	0.8	3.17	0.9	0.08	0.777	1,9
STRUCTURAL NEGATIVE POWER	1.45	0.5	1.42	0.6	0.50	0.480	1,9

Notes. a $n = 191$ for teacher group reporting on male principals.

b $n = 205$ for teacher group reporting on female principals.

c Values represent .05 level of significance or values significant at $p<.05$.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

TABLE 6

Items of Scales Three, Four, & Five by Sex of Principal Multiple Analysis of Variance

SCALE THREE: STRUCTURAL AUTHORITY $F(1,10)=2.434$, $p = 0.008$[a]

ITEM	SEX OF PRINCIPAL				F_{obs}	PROB[a]
	Male[b]		Female[c]			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Item 12: (Making me feel acknowledged with memos or newsletter articles.)	3.16	1.3	3.65	1.2	5.20	0.023
Item 21: (Setting professional goals with me using written goal statements.)	2.69	1.3	3.15	1.4	6.26	0.013
Item 39: (Bringing rules and regulations to my attention.)	2.45	1.2	2.94	1.2	6.06	0.014
Item 75: (Writing notes to me in appreciation of work well done.)	3.01	1.4	3.33	1.2	8.21	0.004
Item 84: (Asking for my support of new program initiatives.)	3.29	1.2	3.44	1.2	4.13	0.043

SCALE FOUR: PERSONAL POS. POWER $F(1,10)=2.092$, $p = 0.024$[a]

ITEM	SEX OF PRINCIPAL				F_{obs}	PROB[a]
	Male[b]		Female[c]			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Item 85: (Giving me personal support when I do good work.)	3.59	1.2	3.87	1.1	7.51	0.017

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

TABLE 6 (Continued)

Items of Scales Three, Four, & Five by Sex of Principal
Multiple Analysis of Variance

SCALE FIVE: PERSONAL REG. POWER $F(1,10)=1.105$, $p = 0.357$[a]

ITEM	SEX OF PRINCIPAL				F_{obs}	PROB[a]
	Male[b]		Female[c]			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Item 23: (Confronting me when I perform unreliably.)	1.72	1.0	1.88	1.2	4.73	0.030
Item 41: (Making sure I am accountable for my conduct.)	2.63	1.4	3.13	1.3	5.32	0.022
Item 86: (Making me feel responsible when I am not doing well at work.)	1.68	1.0	1.90	1.2	4.34	0.038

Notes. [a] Values represent .05 level of significance or values significant at $p<.05$.

[b] $n = 191$ for teacher group reporting on male principals.

[c] $n = 205$ for teacher group reporting on female principals.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

TABLE 7

Items of Scale Five by Sex of Teacher
Multiple Analysis of Variance

SCALE FIVE: PERSONAL NEG. POWER $F(1,10)=1.993$, $p = 0.033$[a]

ITEM	SEX OF PRINCIPAL				F_{obs}	PROB[a]
	Male[b]		Female[c]			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Item 14: (Making me feel confronted when I fail to meet set standards.)	1.79	1.1	1.35	0.7	13.33	0.000
Item 50: (Clearly showing it when he/she is angry.)	2.73	1.2	2.27	1.3	6.86	0.009
Item 77: (Showing anger whenever he/she is angry.)	2.42	1.3	2.05	1.2	5.40	0.021
Item 86: (Making me feel responsible when I am not doing well at work.)	2.00	1.3	1.72	1.0	3.93	0.048

Notes. [a] Values represent .05 level of significance or values significant at $p<.05$.

[b] $n = 191$ for teacher group reporting on male principals.

[c] $n = 205$ for teacher group reporting on female principals.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

effect. In addition, it is helpful to gain further insight into these findings by determining which specific questionnaire items contributed most to the findings. Consideration of the actual questionnaire items provides a greater appreciation of the possible meanings associated with this statistical findings. It is for this reason that the actual language of the questionnaire is drawn into this report. This analysis was done with a two sample (male, female) MANOVA design on all ten items comprising each of the nine scales (SPSS,1988).

In Scale 3, Authentic motivation from a Personal orientation five of the ten questionnaire items were found to contribute most to the effect (see Table 6): "making me feel acknowledged with memos or newsletter articles," "setting professional goals with me using written goal statements," "bringing rules and regulations to my attention," "writing notes to me in appreciation of work well done," and "asking for my support of new program initiatives." Comparing means, as shown in Table 7 for these questions, teachers perceived female principals doing more of these actions than male principals. The five questions not contributing to the effect are less formal. For example, "making me feel recognized during public meetings," and "routinely talking to me about my work." Thus, female principals are perceived to communicate organizational expectations and support teachers more

through written and formal structures than male principals. When communicating from this structural orientation female principals also tend to motivate teachers more from their authentic or inner character rather than by use of extrinsic positive and negative power communication. Thus, female principals may have learned that to express expectations, and to gain support in the school organization, action must be validated by formalizing and legitimating them in writing.

In Scale 4, Positive Power motivation from a Personal orientation (see Table 6), one of the ten questionnaire items was found to contribute most to the effect: "giving me personal support when I do good work." Comparing means, teachers perceived female principals to use this action more than male principals. The nine questions not contributing most to the effect are all positively supporting but do not include the phrase personal. For example, in the questionnaire items "telling me how important my work is" and "granting me additional responsibility and giving me more freedom to make decision," the word personal is not included. Thus, consistent with a review of literature, female principals are perceived to motivate and offer support at a more personal level than male principals. It has been reported in gender studies that females have been socialized to seek interdependence and sustain important relationships by emphasis on human connection more than

emphasis on content or task (Gilligan, 1982; Helgesen, 1990; Ortiz, 1992; Tannen, 1990, & Shakeshaft, 1986).

As noted earlier in this report, MANOVA analysis of items of scales by sex of principal does not support Scale 5 as significant (see Table 6), but is significant when considered interactively with the other eight scales as shown in Table 5. In addition, MANOVA analysis of scales by sex of teacher (see Table 7.0) did indicate Scale 5 to be significant. In spite of this inconsistency of results, Scale 5 warrants further examination.

In Scale 5, Negative Power motivation from a Personal orientation (see Table 6) three of the ten questionnaire items were found to be significant: "confronting me when I perform unreliably," "making sure I am accountable for my conduct," and "making me feel responsible when I am not doing well at work." Comparing means, teachers perceived female principals to do more of these actions than male principals. The seven questions not contributing most to the effect are to a larger extent more direct, clear and confrontational. For example, "making me feel confronted when I fail to meet standards," "clearly showing it when he/she is angry," "showing anger whenever he/she is angry," and "making me think that receiving a greater share of the budget depends on how I perform in my job." Female principals when motivating teachers through personal

negative power appear to do so in a manner that is more often subtle and less often confrontational. They may often express disapproval without direct expression of anger. Females have been socialized to see relationships as most important and may be less inclined to confront differences openly and competitively, but rather may be more apt to emphasize fairness, inclusion and similarities. The actions of direct anger and confrontation are more consistent with and characteristic of male socialization (Tannen, 1990; Shakeshaft, 1986).

In Scale 5, an additional finding by sex of teacher may be helpful to gain insight into Personal Negative Power communication (see Table 7). In no other area was sex of teacher found to contribute to the overall interactive effect. Of the ten questions in Scale 5, sex of teacher was found significant for four questionnaire items: "making me feel confronted when I fail to meet set standards," "clearly showing it when he/she is angry," "showing anger whenever he/she is angry," and "making me feel responsible when I am not doing well at work." Comparing means in each of the four questionnaire items, principals, regardless of sex, are perceived more by male teachers than by female teachers to use these actions. Males then, have been socialized and may be seen to view the world or have a view of reality that is competitive, where seeking status and independence are more important than inclusion (Tannen, 1990). Male socialization

appears to support direct expression of anger. A review of literature suggests that male teachers may have different perceptions than female teachers based on socialization differences. For example, the perception that women are powerless and unable to use assertive communication results in myths and barriers about how men and women behave differently in organizations. The result is a complex set of variables (Turner & Henzl, 1987) that indicate women are indeed inhibited in their personal behaviors (Ortiz, 1982). Thus, any expression of personal negative power from a principal may well be viewed by male teachers, more than female teachers as more direct and confrontational, whether or not it is intended that way by the principal.

Conclusions

In this empirical study leader communication in school systems was investigated utilizing a model of Leadership as Social Control (LASC) communication through the use of the LASC instrument. Specific variables of leader communication by gender were examined. The following conclusions are made:

1. The LASC instrument appeared to validly measure teacher perceptions of principals' use of social control communication with adequate reliability. Significant differences were found in teachers' perceptions of principals' intention in one of the six dimensions of the

model, and in three of the nine scales and by items of the relevant scales.

2. Analysis indicated that principal gender did effect teacher perceptions of principals' intentions in some variables of social control communication. Teachers perceived female principals, more than male principals, to communicate authentic values and beliefs, and positive and negative expectations verbally and nonverbally from their personal role. For example, when communicating through positive and negative power, teachers perceived female principals, more than male principals, to do so verbally by giving teachers personal support when they do well; by confronting them when they perform unreliably, and by making then accountable and responsible for their conduct and work when not doing well. Use of organizational structures or nonverbal communication was perceived by teachers to be greater for female principals than male principals. For example, female principals, more than male principals were perceived by teachers to provide personal acknowledgement in the form of memos, notes of appreciation and written goal statements

3. Although analyses indicated that teacher gender did effect teachers' perceptions of principals intention, this was found to have less significance than principal gender. In one variable, negative power communication from a

personal role, male teachers, more than female teachers perceived principals to be more direct and confrontational. For example, male teachers more than female teachers perceived principals to confront and make them feel responsible when they did not do well or did not meet standards, and to clearly express anger.

All teachers pereived that female principals pay more attention to their work, whether this attention manifests itself negatively or positively. Gougeon (1991b) reports that these same teachers surveyed perceive female principals to be more effective than male principals. He also reports that a high correlation exists between teacher ratings of "feeling close" to their principals and teacher ratings of "being more effective." There is a reasonable connection between the evaluation of principal effectiveness, the feeling of closeness to the principal, and the degree of attention principals give teachers. Thus, it is recommended that male principals who want to be perceived by teachers as more effective must be more aware of the lives lived by their teachers. They must communicate this knowledge by responding to daily achievements and dilemmas that teachers encounter. The authors suggest that an effective principal, male or female, talks to teachers about specific work they do, showing appreciation for actions they take and acknowledging accomplishments. In addition, they confront teachers over specific problems, demanding accountability

and holding them responsible for interacting with students in appropriate ways.

This study provided practical assistance to principals and teachers by providing feedback regarding the social control communication interactions within their schools. Such feedback allowed participants to reflect upon the differences and similarities between principals' intentions and teachers' perceptions in the many daily communication interactions in schools. Awareness of differences by gender can provide principals with alternative communication strategies.

This study had theoretical significance in that findings did support the growing body of gender leadership literature indicating that gender differences exist and that there is a separate and valid female knowledge base. As well, this study contributed fundamental knowledge to the field of leadership communication, particularly social control communication

Implications

Much has been written to classify male and female communication and to describe characteristics of leaders. As well, a growing body of observational and ethnographic studies report differences in leadership between males and females. Theoretical significance regarding difference in male and female communication may well emerge from this

growing body of observational and ethnographic study. However, it is important that continued empirical research continue to be conducted to examine and report findings in a manner that is descriptive of the sample providing practical information to that setting.

Traditional leadership has been white male defined. There are limited numbers of females in leadership positions and those entering in this early stage may well be adapting to the expected traditional and androcentric view of the role rather than defining leadership from their own inherent socialization patterns. It may be too early to discriminate between male and female characteristics. Thus, it is recommended that continued examination of male and female communication differences is warranted to determine if female patterns are significantly different as partially supported in this study.

Further, such continued empirical study is needed to assist in determining if such differences will continue to support the growing body of observational and ethnographic studies. Such current ethnographic and observational study, and continued empirical study will contribute important knowledge to current research characterized by Schumck (1987) as the stage of the "new scholarship" where both men and women are considered as objects of study resulting in alternative points of view about leadership. This effort may assist in developing a more relevant theory of

leadership; one that is inclusive of the knowledge base of both females and males and of both realities (Shakeshaft, 1986). In addition, this effort may lend progress to Kaufman's (1984) assertion that female strengths and values must become normative guides for human behavior in order to "collectively change existing institutions and the powerful bonds that maintain status quo within modern society" (p. 164). As women gain more leadership positions through the female filter, rather than the male filter, only then may we see more genuine differences and learn to value both

The Leadership as Social Control Model (LASC) and instruments can provide important practical information to principals. Such information could assist them in the many daily communication interactions they have with their staffs. Much has been written about the importance of clear communication towards the development of common goals. Principals may utilize the LASC to discover whether there is consistency or discord between what they intend to communicate and what is actually perceived by their staff. For example, understanding that male teachers, more than female teachers, may perceive more direct confrontation and anger than intended may assist principals in refining their negative communication expectation statements when communicating with male teachers if such perception results in less effective communication. Such an examination of LASC data may result in principals' modification in their

communication style to improve communication and subsequently to satisfactorily accomplish the many tasks and goals facing leaders in today's school.

Finally, it is critical to continue examination of leadership conceptualizations to insure that they include female reality and value the female knowledge base as equal to that of the traditional androcentric, white male defined knowledge base. Such inclusion may tell us more, rather than less about leadership communication in schools today and provide females with the support needed to use their natural traits in their roles as leaders.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arnett, R. C. (1988). A choice-making ethic for organizational communication: The work of Ian I. Mitroff. Journal of Business Ethics, 7, 151-161.

Babbie, E. (1990). Survey research methods. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Pub. Co., Division of Wadsworth, Inc.

Barnard, C.I. (1974). The functions of the executive. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bass, B.M. (1981). Stogdill's handbook of leadership New York: Free Press, Division of Macmillan Inc.

Becker, C. (1990). The invisible drama: Women and the anxiety of change. New York: Macmillan.

Bennis, W. (1989). On becoming a leader. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders, the strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper & Row.

Blau, F.D. (1975)). Women in the labor market force: An overview. In J. Freeman, (Ed.), Women a feminist perspective, Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.

Borisoff, D., & Merrill, L. (1985). The power to communicate: Gender differences as barriers to communication. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

Brenner, O.C., Tomkiewicz, J., & Schein, V.E. (1989). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite managment characteristics revisited. Academy of Management Journal, 12(3), 662-669.

Charters, W.W., & Jovick, T. (1981). The gender of principals and principal-teacher relations in elementary schools. Educational Policy and Management. New York: Academic Press.

Cook, T.D., & Campbell, D.T. (1979). Quasi-experimentation: Design and anvalysis issues for field settings. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Czarniawska-Joerges, B. & Joerges, B. (1988). How to control things with words: Organizational talk and control. Management Communication Quarterly, 2(2), 170-193.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Dance, F.E.X. (1967). Human communication theory: Original essays. Toronto, ON: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W.J. (1975). A vertical dyad approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 11, 46-78.

Dempsey, S.D. (1991, June). Who expects what from whom?: A gender based study on expectations and secondary school administration. Paper presented to the meeting of the Canadian Society for Scholars in Education, Kingston, ON.

DeVito, J.A. (1989). The interpersonal communication book, (5th ed.), (pp. 73-80). New York: Harper & Row.

DeWine, S., & James, A.C. (1988). Examining the communication audit: Assessment and modificiation. Management Communication Quarterly, 2(2), 144-169.

Epstein, C.F. (1970). Women's place, options and limits in professional careers. Berkely, CA: University of California Press.

Feldman, J. (1981). Beyond attribution theory: Cognitive processes in performance appraisal. Journal of Applied Psychology, 66(2), 127-148.

Ferguson, M. (1980). The Aquarian Conspiracy. Los Angeles, CA: Tarcher.

Fine, M. G., Johnson, F. L., Ryan, M. S. & Lutfiyya, M. N. (1987). Ethical issues in defining and evaluating women's communication in the workplace. In Communication, gender, and sex roles in diverse interaction context. Stewart, L. P. & Ting-Toomey, S. (Eds.), pp. 105-117. Norwood NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Fiordo, R.A. (1990). Communication in education. Calgary, AB: Detselig Enterprises.

Gilbertson, M. (1981). The influence of gender on verbal interactions among principals and staff members: An exploratory study. Educational Policy and Management. New York: Academic Press.

Gilligan, C., Ward, J., Taylor, V., & McLean, J. (1988). Mapping the Moral Domain. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gougeon, T.D. (1989a). Leadership as social control: Development of a high school principal leadership assessment instrument. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Washington State University, Pullman, WA.

Gougeon, T.D. (1989b, March). Leadership as social control: the high school principalship. Paper presented at the meeting of the Educational Research Association, Bellevue, WA.

Gougeon, T.D. (1989c, October). Assessing principal leader qualities: Using a comprehensive research strategy. Paper presented at the meeting of the University council for Educational Administration Convention, Scottsdale, AZ.

Gougeon, T.D. (1991a, April). Cross gender effects in principal-teacher communication: Using survey and field survey techniques. Paper presented at the annual meeting the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, ILL.

Gougeon, T.D., (1991b, June). Principal-teacher cross gender communication: A replication study. Paper presented at the XIX CSSE Annual Conference of the Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration, Kingston, ON.

Gougeon, T.D., Hutton, S.I., & McPherson, J.L. (1990a, April). A quantitative phenomenological study of leadership: Social control theory applied to actions of school principals. Paper presented at the meeting of the Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.

Gougeon, T.D., Hutton, S.I., & McPherson, J.L. (1990b). A quantitative phenomenological study of leadership: Social control theory applied to actions of school principals. In R.M. Lang & D. Musial (Eds.), Journal Thought Vol,25, Nos. 3 & 4, (pp. 93-126). Northern Illinois University.

Graen, G. & Schiemann, W. (1978). Leader-member agreement: A vertical dyad linkage approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 61(2), 206-212.

Greenbaum, H.H., DeWine, S. &, Downs, C.W. (1987). Management and organizational communication measurement: A call for review and evaluation. Management Communication Quarterly, 1(1), 129-144.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Griffiths, D.E. (1988). Adminstrative theory. In N.J. Boyan (Eds), Handbook of Research on Educational Administration. N. J. Boyan (pp. 27-52) New York: Longman.

Gronn, P.C. (1983). Talk as the work: The accomplishment of school administration. Admistration Science Quarterly, 28(1), 1-21.

Gross, N. & Trask, A.E. (1976). The sex factor and management of schools. New York: Wiley.

Gupta, N. (1983). Barriers to advancement of women in educational administration: Sources and Remedies. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 257 204).

Haire, M. (1955). Role perceptions in labor-management relations: An experimental approach. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 8, 204-216.

Helgesen, S. (1990). The female advantage: Women's ways of leadership. New York : Doubleday Publishing Group.

Hendrick, C. (1991). Replication, strict replications, and conceptual replications: Are they important? In J.W. Neuliep (Ed.), Replication research in the social sciences, (pp. 41-50). Newbury Park CA: Sage Publications.

Henning, M. & Jardim, A. (1977). The managerial women. New York: Anchor Press.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard K.H. (1988). Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources. (5th Ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Hutchinson, J. (1988). Male-female communication: Research and reality. Unpublished manuscript.

Hyde, D.K., Kitamura, Y., & Murzyn, A. (1991). Proposal for a communications audit: For Calgary Park & Recreation Leisure Services Division. Unpublished paper for the Master of Communications Studies Program, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB.

Hyle, A.E. (1991, April). Women and public school administration: Invisibility and discrimination. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Ihle, E.(1991, April). Historical perspectives on women's advancement in higher educational administration. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Ill.

Ingalls, Karen E. (1989-90). Report of the task force on women in administration. Paper presented to the Alberta Teachers' Association, Calgary, AB.

Jablin, F.M., Putnam, L.L., Roberts, K.H., & Porter, L.W. (Eds.), (1990). Handbook of Organizational Communications. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Kaufman, D.R. (1984). Some feminist concerns in an age of networking. In C.M. Brody (Ed.), Women therapists working with women: New theory and process of femininst therapy (pp. 157-164). New York: Springer Publication.

Korgenny, F. (1989) Language, communication and culture: Current Directions. In S. Ting-Toomey (Ed.), Speech Communication. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Kimmel, S. (1988). Women in administration: The Calgary Board of Education story. Vision, (Sept.), 11-16.

Lamal, P. A. (1991). On the importance of replications. In J.W. Neuliep (Ed.), Replication research in the social sciences (pp. 31-46). Newbury Park CA: Sage Publications.

Landy, F.J., & Farr, J. L. (1980). Performance Rating. Psychological Bulletin, 87(1), 72-107.

Lasswell, H.D. (1948). The structure and function of communication in society. In L. Bryson (Ed.), The communication of ideas, (p. 37-40). New York: Harper and Row.

Lieberman, A. (1992). School/University collaboration: A view from the inside. Phi Delta Kappan, 74,(2), 147-156.

Likert, R. (1961). New patterns of management. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Loden, M. (1987). Recognizing women's poetential: No longer business as usual. Management Review, 12, 44-46.

McGregor, D.. (1960). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

McPhee, R.D. (1988). Vertical communication chains: Toward an integrated approach. Management Communication Quarterly, 1(4), 445-493

Miller, G.R. (1966). Speech communication: A behavioral approach. New York: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Mintzberg, H. (1973). The nature of managerial work. . New York: Harper and Row.

Mitchell D. E. & Spady W. G. (1977, August). Authority and the functional structuring of social action in the schools. Revised version of an AERA Symnposium presentation submitted for review to the meeting of the American Educational Research.

Mitchell D. E. & Spady W.G. (1983). Authority, power and the legitimation of social control. Educational Administration Quarterly, 19(1), 5-33.

Mitchell, D.E. (1984). Educational policy analysis: The state of the art. Educational Administration Quarterly, 20(3), 129-160.

Mitchell, D.E., Ortiz, F.I., & Mitchel, T. K. (1987). Work Orientation and Job Performance: The Cultural Basis of Teaching Rewards and Incentives. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Niefhoff, B.P., Enz, C.A., & Grover, R.A. (1990). The impact of top-management actions on employee attitudes and perceptions. Group & Organization Studies, 15(3), 337-352.

Norusis, M.J. (1988). SPSS/PC+ V2.0: Base Manual and Advanced Statistics (Computer program). Chicago, IL: SPSS, Inc.

O'Brien, C.A. (1991). Communication in educational administration. Unpublished master's thesis, The University of Calgary, Calgary, AB.

Oppenheimer, V.K. (1968). The sex labeling of jobs. Industrial Relation, 7, 219-234.

Ortiz, F.I. (1982). Career patterns in education: women, men and minorities in public school administration. New York: Praeger.

Owens, R.G. (1991). Organizational behavior in education, (4th ed.), (pp. 88-100). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Oxford Dictionary, (1986). Compact Edition of Oxford English Dictionary, London: Oxford University Press.

Pettit, J.D. Jr. (1990). The role of communication in organizations: Ethical considerations. The Journal of Business Communication, 27(3), 233-249.

Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. The Academy of Management Theory, 2(1), 104-111.

Porat, K. (1989). Women in administration must be women. The Canadian School Executive, 9(1), 11-14.

Reed D. B., Chase-Furman G., & Gougeon T. D. (1987, April). Social control and the qualitative and quantitative research traditions. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington D.C.

Reed, D.B., Gougeon, T.D., Armstrong, M.D., & Krysinski, P.R. (1987,April). Assessing leadership qualities of school principals employing responses to case studied Paper presented to the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington D.C.

Rosenthal, R. (1991). Replication in behavioral research. In J.W. Neuliep (Ed.),Replication research in the social sciences, pp. 1-39. Newbury Park CA: Sage Publications.

Rossier, L. (1991,June). Effective leadership: New perspectives. Paper presented to the meeting of the XIX CSSE Annual Conference of the Canadian Society for the Study of Educational Administration, Kingston, ON.

Sadker, M., & Sadker, D. (1986). Sexism in the classroom: From grade school to graduate school. Phi Delta Kappan, 67(7), 512-515.

Schaef, A.W. (1981). Women's reality: An emerging female system in the white male society. Minneapolis, MN: Winston Press.

Schein, V.E. (1973). Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite managment characteristics. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57(2), 95-100.

Schein, V.E. (1975). Relationships between sex role sterotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60(3), 340-344.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Schmuck, P.A. (1980). Differentiation by Sex in educational professions. In A. Edwards (Ed.), Sex equity in education, (pp.79-98). New York: Academic Press.

Schumck, P.A. (1987). Women educators: Employees of schools in western countries. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Seigal, S. (1956). Nonparametric statistics for the behavioral sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Sergiovanni, T.J. & Starratt, R.J. (1988). Supervision: Human perspectives, (4th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

Shakeshaft, C., & Bonuso, C. (1983). The gender of secondary school principals. Integrated Education, 21, (1-6), 143-146.

Shakeshaft, C., Gilligan, A., & Pierce, D. (1984). Preparing women school administrators. Phi Delta Kappan, 66(1), 67-68.

Shakeshaft, C., & Hanson, M. (1986a). Androcentric bias in the administrative science quarterly. Educational Adminstration Quarterly, 22(1), 68-92.

Shakeshaft, C. (1986b). A gender at risk. Phi Delta Kappan, 67(7), 499-503.

Shakeshaft, C. (1987a). Organizational theory and women: Where are we? (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 283244).

Shakeshaft, C. (1987b). Women in Educational Administration. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Shakeshaft, C. (1989). The gender gap in reasearch in educational administration. Educational Adminsitration Quarterly, 25(4), 324-337.

Shakeshaft, C., & Nowell, I. (1984). Research on theories, concepts, and models of behavior: The influence of gender. Issues in Education, 2(Winter), 184-206.

Shannon, C. & Weaver, W. (1949). The Mathematical theory of communication. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Smeltzer, L.R., & Fann, G.L. (1989). Comparison of managerial communication patterns in small, entrepreneurial organizations and large, mature organizations. Group & Organization Studies, 14(2), 198-215.

Smith, M.A., & Edson, S. (1980). Experiential learning about sex roles. In A. Edwards (Ed.), Sex equity in education, New York: Academic Press.

Spady W. G. & Mitchell D. E. (1977a, April). Authority, power, and expectations as determinants of action and tension in school organizations. Revised version of an AERA Symposium presentation submitted for review to the the meeting of the American Educational Research Journal.

Spady, W.G. and Mitchell, D.E. (1977b, April). The uses of authority and power in the organization and control of school task performance. Paper presented to the meeting of the American Educational Research Association.

Stewart, L.P. & Ting-Toomey, S. (Eds.). (1987). Communication, gender, and sex roles in diverse interaction context (pp. 105-117). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Tannen, D. (1990). You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation. New York: Ballentine Books.

Tenholm, S. (1986). Human communication theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Thayer, L.. (1979). Communication: Sine qua non of the behavioral sciences. In R.W. Budd & B.D. Ruben (Eds.), Interdisciplinary approaches to human communication (pp. 7-31).Rochelle Park, NJ: Hayden Book Co.

Thayer, L. (1988). Leaderhip/Communication: A critical review and a modest proposal. In G.M. Goldhaber & G.A. Barnett (Eds.), Handbook of organizational communication (pp. 231-263). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Turner, L.H.,& Henzl, S.A. (1987). Influence attempts in organizational conflict: The effects of biological sex, psychological gender, and power postion. Management Communication Quarterly, 1(1), 32-57.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Wellmon, T.A. (1988). Conceptualizing organizational communication competence: A rules-based perspective. Management Communication Quarterly, 1(4), 515-534.

Wolcott, H. (1973). The man in the principal's office: An ethnography. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Young, B. (1991, June). On careers: Themes from the lives of four western canadian women educators. Paper presented to the meeting of the Canadian Association of Scholars in Educational Administration, Kingston, ON. Edmonton.